According to recent field-survey figures, which make possible rough estimates rather than accurate statistical tabulation, the annual wheat crop of Sinkiang is about 253,000 tons, representing about 44 per cent of the total crop of grains, beans, and seeds. Corn reaches 331,000 tons, or 28 per cent. Rice is about 71,000 tons, or 6 per cent. Barley, kaoliang (sorghum millet), oats and peas are classed together because they are largely used as feed grains. In Jungaria they are grown, largely by rainfall farming, to sell for feed to the long-distance camel caravans which, when times are peaceful, trade into the Outer Mongolian People's Republic, through Inner Mongolia to North China, and across the desert gap into Northwest China. The total crop reaches about 119,000 tons, or 10 per cent. Millet, soy beans and green beans, often in alternate rows in the same field, reach 71,000 tons or 6 per cent. Sesame, rapeseed, and linseed account for 71,000 or 6 per cent.

In subsidiary production, melons are grown in all oases. Dried melon rind is exported by caravan from Komul to China, as a delicacy, and the raisins of Turfan rival the melons of Komul in reputation. In gorges in the hills at the edge of Turfan, and also of Khotan, the growing of grapes is a local specialty.

The branches of willows growing along the banks of canals are cropped regularly for fuel. Another form of fuel, the use of which decreases the supply of fertilizer, is animal dung collected by old men and children who follow animals at pasture and scour the roads. The most important source of fuel, however, is the desert tamarisk gathered beyond the oasis.

Some peculiarities of Sinkiang agriculture are that winter wheat is grown north of the Tien Shan where, in spite of the cold, the seeds are protected by a cover of snow, but only spring wheat can be grown south of the Tien Shan, where lack of a snow cover exposes the seed to being frozen in the ground. Wheat is tending to be displaced by rice in oasis fields which are becoming alkalinized by irrigation. On the other hand the yield of rice is lower than that of corn, because the Uighur farmers do not transplant

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI1 Sinkiang AI1

243 the young rice shoots as Chinese farmers do. On the average, the
242 amount of labor expended on a unit of land is about the same in Sinkiang as in China proper, but the yield is somewhat less.

Cotton is the most important commercial crop in Sinkiang. It is
248 known to have been grown in Turfan as early as the T'ang Dynasty (618–907). By 1750, it was used to pay taxes in Yarkand.[15] In 1776 it was described as ranking next to the wheat crop in importance,[16] and it has been one of the leading exports to Russia since 1890. The cotton belt lies south of the Tien Shan. Turfan and Merket (on the northern edge of the Yarkand oasis) lead in production, followed by Yarkand, Khotan, Kashgar, and Aksu.

Two varieties are grown, native and American. After failure in experimenting with Sea Island cotton in Tashkent in the 1870's, two Russian merchants named Belyakov and Lakhtin experimented very successfully with the Upland variety in 1883. After 1885 American species began to supplant the native type in Ferghana and Samarkand. A few years later Russian dealers set out to improve the quality grown in Sinkiang by distributing American seed.[17] Up to 1942 large quantities of seed were imported yearly from the Soviet Union, especially two varieties of American origin called "Shredder" and "Novrozkii." From American long-staple varieties of 25 to 29 mm., 32-count yarns can be spun, while the short-staple Inner Asian variety can be used only for 24-count yarns. In 1943, 100,000 acres of cotton were planted, 73 per cent with native cotton and 23 per cent with seed of the American varieties.

231 Silk is a second ancient crop of commercial importance. The
439 most noted silk oases have always been Khotan and Yarkand.
288 Part of the raw silk they produce is manufactured on the spot into fabrics which have greatly declined in value and beauty in recent years, and the rest is exported to the Soviet Union and

[15] Kuropatkin, p. 126.

[16] Chuan Yuan, *Geography of the Western Regions*, written 1776, published 1818, chuan 1, p. 1 (in Chinese).

[17] "Economy in Sinkiang," *Chinese Weekly Economic Bulletin*, Chinese Government Bureau of Economic Information, pp. 16, 109, April 25, 1925.

These feelings and emotional attitudes were hardly sufficient to arouse animosity or hatred toward the Chinese but rather an unjustified and unwarranted feeling of superiority. The progressive advancement of Chinese settlers, however, who gradually took over lot after lot of their pasture land led not only to hatred but resulted in petty uprisings, so that even the Manchu government several times issued laws against Chinese advancements, which were hardly ever observed. Complaints of the Mongol leaders did not help and they were numerically too weak for military action.

Only in the case of the sedentary Mongols of the Northwest, the Monguors, such problems never arose, as they had become so strongly sinified that their tribal leaders were considered by the Chinese themselves as Chinese officials with a reputation of absolute loyalty.

D. Attitudes toward the Communist Regime

Throughout the history of the Mongols, their pattern of living, internal and external, changed very little. Their families constituted auls, the auls, clans and the clans, tribes. Besides this structural organization, there existed the military institutions of banners and leagues. The internal order was always strict and the laws and regulations hard. A leader who was not strict and hard would hardly be considered as a leader and the history of the Mongols shows that a strong leader always evoked their respect and found them to be submissive followers.

In view of this fact there is little doubt that the Mongols of the Northwest will respect the iron hand of Peking, even though probably with mixed emotions. The creation of autonomous chous (districts) populated only or overwhelmingly by Mongols might give them a certain feeling of self-determination and cultural autonomy. The organization of veterinarian stations which take care of their livestock will certainly be welcome to the nomads; the organization of a widespread educational system might be another asset for the Communists as it fosters Mongolian language and promotes literature written in Mongolian. The establishment of permanent winter sites, on the other hand, which is contradictory to Mongol customs and above all the threatening collectivization of their livestock, which is the Mongols' highest and greatest treasure, are negative aspects. This, of course, refers to the present generation only. The younger and youngest generation, subject to a very vivid and propagandistic education will undoubtedly change their attitude toward the present regime, a process for which the Khalkhas of Outer Mongolia are a classic example. (see also IMAR Handbook, same section).

III. The Chinese, Chinese Moslems and Sedentary Tibetans

An attempt at a cohesive description of popular attitudes among

N
241 ning in agriculture has become more complex and difficulties are
*668 encountered in realizing annual targets. The absence of trained technicians to introduce new farming techniques, the lack of accountants and organizers in the cooperatives, and the so-called
N ideological backwardness of many of the Communist cadres them-
121 selves have prevented rapid cooperativization. We will now exa-
241 mine very briefly the progress achieved in the different regions
*668 of the Northwest and the problems which have arisen to prevent agricultural development. In this way, the pattern of Chinese Communist agricultural planning can be observed more clearly. Henceforth, all statistics concerning the number of co-ops, agricultural output, etc., are Communist claims and, of course, must be carefully considered.

B. Application of Communist Agricultural Policy to the Northwest

S
175 1. Sinkiang

474 By June, 1955, nearly six years after the area was occupied
241 by the Communist Army, there were 75,215 mutual aid teams
668 (it is not known how many of these were on a permanent basis)
[476] and the agricultural producer cooperative numbered 1,702 with roughly 66.4 per cent of the peasant population participating in some form of co-op. By the end of 1956, in response to Mao's directive to hasten the creation of agricultural producer cooperatives, it is planned to increase their number to 5,100 and by 1957 to 10,240. (Far Eastern Economic Review. December 1, 1955, pp. 686-87.)

S
241 Emphasis has been on raising the production of wheat, oil
433 seed bearing plants, and cotton, by extending cultivation. The
*668 Communists attribute all increases in production to a result of
175 further consolidation and development of the cooperative move-
[474] ment. Although there is a paucity of data on output, acreage, and output per acre, the following table has been pieced together from the information available, in an attempt to give some comparisons of increases attained during the Communist period with that of 1949. The figures for the Communist period have been obtained from 1954 and 1955 reports. See Table 1.

S
• 242 The government has established agricultural stations, in
668 order to show the peasants of various nationalities how to improve
433 their farming methods. In 1955 it was reported that Sinkiang
175 had seventy such stations. Two tractor stations have also been opened in Urumchi and Sui-ting. These stations have sought to improve production by planting Ukrainian winter wheat and S-3173 cotton, and promote better procedures of farming such as summer ploughing, autumn ploughing, winter irrigation, sowing in rows, close-planting, and cotton-pruning. They have made efforts to wipe out insect pests. The Soviet Union sent

175
242 The Soviet Union sent
668 thirty-three airplanes and large numbers of locust experts to
433 spray insecticides over an area of some 2,669,000 mow (or
[177] 405,688 acres) during 1952-1955. On the state farms, the Army
[475] has done the lion's share of the work of reclaiming land, building
[701] irrigation works, erecting experimental farms and stations and operating them. (Union Research Service, Oct. 14, 1955. p. 7, No. 9.)

654 The Communists reported that they have given financial and
668 technical assistance to the various nationalities who till the soil
241 or engage in pastoral activities. By the end of 1954, agricultural
175 loans totalling some 26,140,000 yuan (U.S. $1,061) and some 46,000 farming implements had been supplied to the peasants, enabling every peasant household to have one trowel of its own and every 1.3 households to own a plow. These small figures indicate that assistance has been meagre; but even this might enable the peasants to increase output as compared to output obtained by previous farming implements.

241 Whether agriculture will prosper in Sinkiang depends entirely
312 on the steps taken in water conservancy and the proper utilization
668 of water. Already five million additional mow of land (160,000
175 acres) have been irrigated in the past six years and the irrigated acreage in 1954 has been increased by 30.2 per cent since 1949. Reservoirs have been constructed like the well-known "Red Wild Goose Reservoir" and the "Peace Reservoir" which both now
[475] irrigate more than 237,000 mow (36,024 acres of land). Three
[474] state farms, collective farms, and a dozen or so agricultural co-ops have been formed in the area.

231 By the end of 1954, the total number of livestock in the whole
433 province numbered 17,105,000 head, an increase of 7.47 per cent
175 over 1953. (In 1947 the total number of livestock was 15,037,000.
668 The figure reported for 1954 indicates a 13 per cent increase.) The plan for 1955 is to raise the number fo 18,987,567 head, a net increase of 11 per cent. This will include 537,280 head of large and small animals of improved breed (including 515,792 sheep, 7,930 large domestic animals, 13,538 pigs); 2,839,140 head of livestock will be innoculated against or cured of various diseases. The Chinese Communists complain, however, of many defects in animal husbandry. During the past winters, insufficient feed was gathered and many animals died. It was estimated that some 200,000 died in the spring of 1954, an approximate loss of one per cent per annum.

313 The forestry policy has been to protect existent forests from
668 fire and damage, to survey forest areas suitable for afforestation, to plant saplings there, and to afforestate areas near rural villages for the development of co-ops and state farms. Each year, the quota mou to be afforestated is set and state departments undertake to meet these quotas. Nurseries have been built and seedlings planted in these tracts.